DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 196 827 SP 016 015

AUTHOR	Gollub, Wendy Leebov: And Others
TITLE	Teacher Skill Guide for Combatting Sexism. Module 5: Fostering Independence.
INSTITUTION	Education Development Center, Inc., Newton, Mass.
SPONS AGENCY	Office of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C. Women's Educational Equity Act Program.
PUB DATE	79
GRANT	G007605329
NOTE	41p.: For related documents, see SP 016 011-020.
AVAILABLE FROM	WEECN Publishing Center, Education Development Center, 55 Chapel St., Newton, MA 02160 (Package price for 13 Modules and Leader's Guide, $16.25).
EDRS PRICE	MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS	*Attitude Change: *Behavior Modification: Behavior Patterns: Elementary Secondary Education: Individual Differences: Inservice Teacher Education: *Modeling (Psychology): Peer Influence: *Role Perception: Self Actualization: *Sex Stereotypes: *Socialization: Student Behavior

ABSTRACT

The goal of this workshop module is to increase teachers' awareness of the differential processes of socialization that affect the development of independence in girls and in boys and to help instructors adopt classroom behaviors and structures that foster independence in all students. Selected background readings on social attitudes toward expected behavior on the part of both sexes are annotated. Self study and classroom activities that focus on the development of intellectual and emotional independence and initiative are included. (JD)

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TEACHER SKILL GUIDE FOR COMBATTING SEXISM

Module #5

Fostering Independence

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH
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Office of Education

SP 016 015

TEACHER SKILL GUIDE FOR COMBATTING SEXISM

Module #5

Fostering Independence

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MAY 9 1980

The activity which is the subject of this report was supported in whole or in part by the Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. However, the opinions expressed herein do not necessarily reflect the position or policy of the Office of Education, and no official endorsement by the Office of Education should be inferred.

The work upon which this publication is based was performed pursuant to Grant No. G007605329 under the Women's Educational Equity Act of 1974, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, U.S. Office of Education.

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Distributed and printed by Education Development Center, 1979
55 Chapel Street, Newton, Mass. 02160

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MODULE #5: FOSTERING INDEPENDENCE

OBJECTIVES

*To increase participants' awareness of the differential processes of socialization that affect the development of independence in girls and in boys

*To help participants adopt classroom behaviors and structures that foster independence in all students

SUGGESTED TIMING

	Activity	Suggested Time
I.	How girls and boys are socialized differently	50 minutes
II.	Skits on dependency	25 minutes
III.	Creating a profile of the intellectually dependent student	15 minutes
IV.	Fostering student independence	45 minutes

WORKSHOP DEISGN

Activity I. How girls and boys are socialized differently

Objective

*To increase participants' understanding of the ways in which girls and boys are socialized differently

A. To the leader:
   1. Distribute the following readings to all participants (see pages 7-21):
      a. "Girls and Boys are Socialized Differently," Verheyden-Hilliard.
      b. "Sex Role Socialization," Golden and Hunter.
      c. "School Against Girls/School Against Boys," Frazier and Sadker.
      d. Sex Differences in the School.
   2. Ask participants to read for 20 minutes by themselves.
   3. Have participants form small discussion groups (four or five members).
   4. Ask that each small group focus its discussion of the readings on the following guide questions:
      a. What were the issues, problems, and statistics that stood out the most?
      b. What were the issues, problems and statistics that seemed surprising?
      c. What were the issues, problems, and statistics that seemed particularly important?

B. To the leader:
   1. Present a brief lecture to all participants, touching on the following points:
      a. Schools treat female and male students differenly in terms of expectations about independence.
      b. Boys receive a societal message to be independent (even prior to entering school) so that they are more likely than girls to rebel against school efforts to make them compliant, passive dependent.

c. Girls receive a societal message that meshes with school efforts to create compliance and dependence (this "double wallop" effect is a powerful influence that makes independence a difficult goal for girls to achieve).

d. Current socialization patterns are far from optimal for children of either sex; educators need to develop a more positive set of expectations to encourage independence in all students.

e. Independence is a crucial factor affecting the development of all children into fully functioning, autonomous adults; school efforts to encourage independence should receive high priority.

f. Independence can be conceptualized in terms of three functional domains:

1) Intellectual independence: the ability to think for oneself, articulate one's position, develop internal standards for evaluating one's efforts, and define one's own areas of interest

2) Emotional and behavioral independence: the ability to take risks, feel confident, behave assertively, resist peer pressure, choose dependence when appropriate, rely on one's own personal sense of self-worth, and cope with the demands of our increasingly technological world

3) Daily living skills independence: the ability to earn a living, defend oneself physically, attend to household chores, and deal with basic technological skills (e.g., electric appliances, etc.).

Activity II. Skits on dependency

Objective

*To encourage participants to understand experientially the trait of independence by acting out expressions of the opposite trait (dependency)

A. To the leader:

1. Have participants form four work groups by counting off from one to four.
2. Assign one of the following tasks to each work group:
   a. Create a skit about a dependent scientist.
   b. Create a skit about a dependent zoo keeper.
   c. Create a skit about a dependent police officer.
   d. Create a skit about a dependent friend.
3. Ask that each group spend ten minutes planning its dependency skit. Remind participants to consider the three functional domains in which independence is important (intellectual, emotional and behavioral, and daily living skills) and try to include expressions of dependency from each domain in their skits.
4. Have each small group perform its skit for all participants.

Activity III. Creating a profile of the intellectually dependent student

Objective

*To encourage participants to explore the classroom relevance of the issue of independence by focusing on the opposite trait (dependency) as it is demonstrated by students

A. To the leader:
   1. Ask all participants to consider this question:
      What is an intellectually dependent student like in terms of thoughts, feelings, and behaviors?
   2. Have participants call out their responses as they think of them.
   3. Record participants' responses (on the chalkboard) thereby creating a "profile" of the intellectually dependent student.

Activity IV. Fostering student independence

Objective

*To allow participants to explore practical strategies for encouraging student independence in the classroom

A. To the leader:
   1. Have participants form small work groups according to the grade level or subject area they teach (or are interested in teaching).
   2. Ask each small group to generate a list of responses to each of the two following questions:
      a. What teacher behaviors and classroom structures might I use to foster student dependency?
      b. What teacher behaviors and classroom structures might I use to foster student independence?
   3. Focusing only on the independence list, have each small group share three or four ideas with all participants.

B. To the leader:
   1. Ask that each participant work alone for the next five minutes, compiling a list of responses (to be shared later) to each of the two following questions:
      a. Which aspects of student independence do I already foster in my classroom?
      b. Which aspects of student independence do I want encourage more actively in my classroom?
   2. Ask participants to return to the small work groups they formed at the start of Activity IV.
   3. Have the members of each small group share their ideas about fostering independence in the classroom.
   4. Ask each small work group to consider, one at a time, the aspects of student independence that its members most want to encourage. Groups can brainstorm approaches that individuals might actually use in their classrooms. Be sure to suggest that brainstormed ideas be recorded so that group members can review them later.

BACKGROUND READINGS

I. Sex Differences in the School

II. "School Against Boys/School Against Girls," annotated from Nancy Frazier and Myra Sadker, Sexism in School and Society (N.Y.: Harper and Row, 1973), pp. 89-110.

III. "Girls and Boys are Socialized Differently" by Mary Ellen Verheyden-Hilliard, A Handbook for Workshops on Sex Equality (Washington, D.C.: American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1976), pp. 9-11.

IV. "Sex Role Socialization" from Gloria Golden and Lisa Hunter, In All Fairness: A Handbook on Sex Role Bias in Schools (San Francisco: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 1974), pp. 52-54, 56-58, 71-75, 78-79, 82.

I. SEX DIFFERENCES IN THE SCHOOL

No conclusive evidence of sex differences in scholastic achievement exists, but young girls have fewer physical and emotional problems, read better, stutter less, and mature physically more rapidly than boys.

Nonetheless, the socialization process has a strange effect by the time students reach junior and senior high school. By then, some girls are afraid to assert themselves in class discussions. They may lower their sights regarding a career and decide that the ultimate key to personal success is finding the right husband.

Why?

Many aspects of schooling contribute to the fact that girls grow to doubt their own capabilities. It is not sufficient to equalize hiring practices and opportunities for adult women. We must from the earliest ages encourage a belief in women's equality, for the solution to the problem lies in the development of a strong concept of self.

II. SCHOOL AGAINST BOYS/SCHOOL AGAINST GIRLS*

Nancy Frazier and Myra Sadker

Generally the research in this article shows that teachers interact significantly more with boys than with girls in four major categories of teacher behavior: approval, instruction, listening to the child, and disapproval.

The cumulative effects of so much greater negative attention toward boys seem to be 1.) that boys grow more independent in school because they rebel against this negative attention, 2.) that boys get lower grades than girls, and 3.) that boys develop a much more negative attitude toward school with all the concomitant effects of such an attitude.

If young girls have experienced sex typing at home, they are likely to enter school already somewhat compliant and passive, and, therefore, much more likely to fit in with the norms of the school.

In school girls are reinforced for silence, for neatness, for conformity; they are anxious to receive good grades and teacher praise. This dispensation of rewards greatly thwarts the process of learning because it discourages any intellectual curiosity. It has been shown that grade-school girls are more likely to avoid possible failure than are boys of a corresponding age and thus to avoid academically challenging problems.

Schools also work against girls in that girls do not see an equal distribution of power and authority within the school or the school system as a whole. Curricular materials fail to provide adequate role models and frequently work actively to denigrate the image of women.

Thus, because of the operation of the pervasive hidden curriculum -- interaction patterns, a deductive reward system, unbalanced staffing and curricular materials -- sex stereotypes introduced in the home are reinforced and refined in school. Young boys rebel against the hidden curriculum's demand for quiet and docile behavior and maintain the ability to deal with school life in an autonomous and independent manner. Although they do not generally win official school approval in the form of grades, there is no shortage of societal role models in the school itself and in books to assure the boy that success will eventually be his.

Young girls do not leave the elementary school with so little damage done. For them, a robbery has been perpetrated.... it is a slow, subtle, and daily filching of self-respect as girls are seduced by the reward system, as they shy away from challenging material, as they are presented in life in books with role models who are subservient and apparently inferior to men.

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*Annotated from Nancy Frazier and Myra Sadker, Sexism in School and Society (N.Y.: Harper and Row, 1973), pp. 89-110. Used by permission.

III. GIRLS AND BOYS ARE SOCIALIZED DIFFERENTLY*

Mary Ellen Verheyden-Hilliard

The Problem

Sex role stereotyping of girls and boys begins early. While recognizing that school is not the only institution involved in the sex role stereotyping of children, educators *can* look at the educational institutions in which they have some influence to see what they can remedy. Socialization to the traditional sex roles begins by kindergarten at the latest.

Here are some activities to look at for a start:

- Who drives the toy trucks and plays architect with the building blocks?
- Who is in the doll corner ironing?
- Who carries in the milk cartons for lunch?
- Who stays in the classroom and passes the straws?
- Who helps with the audio visual equipment?
- Who bakes the brownies for the class bake sale?
- Who gets to cheer?
- Who gets to *be* cheered?
- Who could encourage the students to work together and try out the multiple roles for which they all need to prepare?

Research indicates that by the time girls are in the fourth grade most have limited the range of their lifelong aspirations to the traditional roles of nurse, teacher, secretary and mother.[15] Educators can help expand the range of options through supplemental curricular materials, by providing alternative role models through school visits or field trips, and through student discussion and the counseling process.

> ". . . because young girls have already learned to limit their horizons to home and family, the guidance counselor must be prepared to act as a social change agent."[16]

It is very important to be aware of methods which make it appear that gender requires children to be separated in curricular or extracurricular activities. Some of the pitfalls are:

- assigning certain tasks on the basis of sex;
- playing competitive games on the basis of boys against girls;
- assigning pairs of boys and pairs of girls to work at projects rather than just random pairs of children;
- lining up by same sex groupings;
- threatening one sex or the other with the punishment of having to "go sit with the girls (boys)"; and
- even saying, "Good morning, boys and girls." Why not, "Good morning, children."?

Consider how it would sound and how it might make the children feel if games, lining-up arrangements or punishments were on the basis of minority group membership "against" majority group membership.

For the same reasons, unnecessarily differentiating activities on the basis of sex can be divisive. Rather than moving toward cooperative effort in work and personal relationships, the groundwork may have been laid for dividing the boys and the girls into the enemy camps long identified with the "battle of the sexes."

"'Sexism' is as virulent a disease as racism; the daily struggle of meeting the stereotyped image of 'masculinity' can well be claimed for the fact that men develop more ulcers than women and die at a younger age."[11]

Positive Steps

To break free of the traditional sex role stereotypes a boy needs to know that he does not have to be stronger and braver and better than any girl or risk losing his sexual identity, and a girl needs to know that she does not have to be, or pretend to be, more delicate, timid and dependent than any boy in order to be a "real" girl. Educators can create an environment in which girls and boys, young women and young men, all develop their individual physical and intellectual strengths, share leadership roles and work as partners in curricular and extracurricular activities.

Students are generally unaware of legal requirements which outlaw sex-based requirements in hiring or which forbid refusing to hire women when they have or expect to have children. The "Guidelines on Discrimination Because of Sex" from the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (Appendix D) can provide background information for leading a discussion on careers. Questions which can be raised with students are:

- What careers are totally inappropriate for girls or boys? Why?
- Is it illegal to limit certain jobs to one sex or another?
- Does she expect someone else will take financial responsibility for her throughout her life? Does he expect to have that total responsibility? Why?
- Who takes care of the children if both partners are developing serious long-range careers?
- What do the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission Guidelines (Appendix D) say about sex-based requirements for hiring and sex-based policies relating to marital and parental status?
- How do partners come to joint and equitable decisions about career moves to further the career of either member of the relationship?
- How do the students feel about having girls on a mixed sex team or as captains of mixed sex teams? Why?
- Is it all right for a boy to be class secretary and a girl to be class president? Why?
- Have the students ever met, read about or observed dual career families where family and financial responsibilities are shared?

Women enter with a handicap which a "null" academic environment does nothing to decrease and may well reinforce. In other words, professors don't have to make it a specific point to discourage their female students—society will do that job for them. All they have to do is fail to encourage women students. *It can be done with no effort at all.*[12]

Presently schools generally stress the future homemaking responsibilities of girls and the future career responsibilities of boys. To eliminate sex role stereotyping and bring balance to the life preparation of girls and boys, options need to be expanded.

Encouraging a girl to make serious, long-range educational and career plans which are independent of possible future marital and parental roles is a way of expanding her options.

Encouraging a boy to prepare to participate equitably in home responsibilities and to consider the implications of a dual career family on his own educational and career planning will expand his options.

Educators can examine their own feelings by discussing their responses to the following situations:

- at seven years she says she intends to be President;
- at ten she wants to try out for the school's soccer team;
- at 12 she wants to be an engineer;
- at 14 she wants to take shop class:
- at 15 she is asking about union apprenticeships;
- at 16 she wants to go to MIT and plans to be president of General Motors; and
- at 17 she says she has decided to go to business school so she can get a job right away and work and save money so she can get married because that is what her boyfriend wants.

What are your responses to her? What resources do you point out? What courses do you suggest? Read it again and use "he" as the reference. Does that change your feelings and your responses?

More and more, students will come to recognize that pursuing careers as a carpenter, executive, chef, and secretary, track champion, physicist, nurse and basketball player aren't restricted to one gender. . . . They will see too, that it is gratifying to explore all kinds of learning, that it is useful to everybody to know how to be self sufficient . . . that everyone can get some satisfaction from making things—and that what to make is a personal, not a sex-determined decision. Courses will be changed to make them more suitable for people, not for girls only or for boys only. Increasingly, students will be encouraged to pursue their own interests and to seek their own identities, regardless of gender. And school administrators will be looking anew at the basic purposes of education and asking themselves whether the opportunities provided for individual growth and development are indeed equal."

NOTES

15. O'Hara, Robert. The roots of careers. *Elementary School Journal*, 62(5), 277–280, 1962.
16. Bem, Sandra L. and Daryl J. Bem. *Training the woman to know her place: the social antecedents of women in the world of work*. 1973. Pennsylvania Department of Education, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania.
17. Hernandez, Aileen C. Sister and brother: getting ahead together. *Nonsexist education for survival*, Washington: National Education Association, 1973, pp. 28–29.
18. Spaulding, Joanna. What does education do to women? *Sounds of change: a report in counseling and programming for women's career opportunities*. Los Angeles: University of California, 1974, p. 85–86.
19. American Association of School Administrators. *Sex equality in education*. 1975, Arlington, Virginia.

*From Mary Ellen Verheyden-Hilliard, A Handbook for Workshops on Sex Equality in Education (Washington, D.C.: American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1976), pp. 9-11. Reprinted with permission.

IV. SEX ROLE SOCIALIZATION*

Gloria Golden and Lisa Hunter

Early Sex Role Socialization [1]

In a very extensive review of research on sex differences and sex role socialization, Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) have posed a challenge to commonly held assumptions. The prevalent notion has been that parents exert both "direct and indirect pressures to make their children fit sex stereotypes." Maccoby and Jacklin assert that there are far more similarities than differences in how parents treat girls and boys under the age of six. They do not agree with researchers who maintain that modeling the behavior of the same-sex parent is the major source of sex differentiation.

Here is a summary of some of Maccoby and Jacklin's findings regarding parental treatment of the two sexes:

- The total amount of interaction between parents and children of both sexes is similar; the amount of expressed affection by parents is similar; the amount of attention is also similar.
- Although it is widely believed that mothers vocalize more with daughters, there is no consistent evidence for this.
- While it has been thought that parents allow more aggression in boys, a number of more recent studies throw this into question.
- There is little or no evidence that one sex is encouraged to be more independent than another.

The conclusion to be drawn from Maccoby and Jacklin's scrutiny of the research is that a child's parents may not be the most important agents of his or her sex role socialization. The range of sex role behaviors which parents influence is a narrow one, including the way the child dresses, what he does for recreation, the places he goes. In Maccoby and Jacklin's view, it is in a more important and broader domain of parental influence that few or no differences in treatment of the sexes is found; this domain includes parental encouragement of autonomy, the amount of affection given the child, the amount of verbal interaction with the child.

In contrast to Kohlberg and Zigler (1966), Maccoby and Jacklin hold that children under age six do have knowledge of what is appropriate masculine and feminine behavior, despite the fact that they have not yet chosen a same-sex model. In Kohlberg's view, until the child is more self-reliant and of school age, he does not have a clear concept of masculine or feminine behavior. Instead, the child's developmental energy has been absorbed in some elementary lessons, such as learning what his or her sex is, that it is unchangeable, that he needs to identify the sex of others. Kohlberg believes that gender constancy ("Since I am and always will be a girl/boy, I might as well start behaving like one") must precede adoption of sex role. Maccoby and Jacklin do not. They say that knowledge about what behavior is sex-appropriate can begin as early as age three and probably partly results not from specific shaping by parents but from generalized learning through observation of persons in the environment.

*From Gloria Golden and Lisa Hunter, In All Fairness: A Handbook on Sex-Role Bias in Schools (San Francisco: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 1974), pp. 52-54, 56-58, 71-75, 78-79, 82. Reprinted with permission.

". . . children seem to adopt sex-typed patterns of play and interests for which they have never been reinforced, and avoid sex-inappropriate activity for which they have never been punished" (Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974).

One difference in parental treatment which does recur in the research tends to further disprove the assumption that parents provide the major shaping of a child's sex role identity. This finding concerns the amount of punishment boys receive. For while it could be expected that boys' greater aggression might be due to receiving less parental punishment than girls, it appears that the opposite is true. Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) write:

"We have not found that parents reward boys more for aggressive or competitive behavior, nor punish girls more for these behaviors. To some degree, the reverse may be true; it is boys who receive more punishment for aggression. One might argue that punishment will actually serve to stimulate the child's aggressiveness by providing aggressive models, but even though this may be true, it involves a different mechanism of learning than what is normally meant by a 'shaping' process . . ."

There is evidence, however, that parents tend to invest considerable effort in discouraging young children from dressing or otherwise appearing like the opposite sex. This may be the result of strong parental anxiety about homosexuality and may be particularly true of fathers in regard to sons. Some researchers speculate that the parental rewards and punishments which this fear inspires may be an important factor in the sex typing of young children. Nevertheless, the weight of the evidence, as interpreted by Maccoby and Jacklin, suggests that other socializing agents—other adults, the school, the media—play a stronger role than parents in sex typing the child. They maintain parents are more likely to relate to the child in a manner that is determined by his individuality rather than by his gender. Thus, Maccoby and Jacklin write:

". . . the social brainwashing about which we are so concerned these days does not begin so early, nor go so deep, as we have been supposing . . . Although the observational evidence on socialization after the age of six is thin, there is reason to believe that pressure for sex role differentiation may become quite heavy after this time."

This opinion would place a greater burden for the sex typing of the child on the school than has commonly been assumed.

Socialization of Females [2]

The socialization of the female in our society has created a 51% majority of second-class citizens. This can be substantiated on both a subjective and an objective level. In regard to the subjective: according to McKee and Sherriffs (1957), both sexes devalue being female and both sexes rate men as more worthwhile than women. At all ages, boys strongly prefer masculine roles, and at some ages, girls too show a strong preference for masculine roles (Brown, 1958). In a study on the relationship of early socialization experience to self-concept, Sears (1970) found that for both sexes femininity is associated with poor self-concept. Both sexes generally prefer to have male children (Dinitz, Dynes and Clarke, 1954).

Concerning objective manifestations of second-class citizenship: Bem and Bem (1972) write that if a newborn child is a girl,

> "... we can predict with almost complete confidence how she is likely to be spending her time some 25 years later. 43% of her waking time will be spent in activity that would command an hourly wage on the open market well below the federally set minimum for menial industrial work ... The point is that this use of time is virtually the same for homemakers with college degrees and for homemakers with less then a grade school education, for women married to professional men and for women married to blue-collar workers."

Baumrind (1972) asserts that girls in this society, and in other Western societies, do not acquire traits associated with independence. Baumrind intends "independent" to mean achievement-oriented, dominant, resistant of illegitimate authority, and purposive.* A strong case can be made for this lack of independence being the product of sex role conditioning and not basic biological differences. For example, data from Fels Research Institute (Sontag, et al., 1958) point up a relationship between a low acceptance of the feminine role and an increase in IQ from ages six to ten in girls; and girls who show such an increase are likely to be independent and dominant. It is interesting that Helson (1960) found a consistent association between creativity in college women and tomboy traits.

In separate studies Baumrind (1972), Crandall (1964), Kagan and Moss (1962) report that independence in girls is associated with an absence of overprotectiveness in the parents, and parental nonacceptance. Baumrind theorizes that overly close attachments and tension-reducing interactions do not foster assertiveness and independence. The implication is that many girls may suffer from an unhealthy degree of parental overprotection.

Bem and Bem (1972) believe that there is "an unconscious ideology about the nature of the female child and the nature of her aspirations from the very beginning. ..." The substance of this ideology is that the female is inferior in most endeavors, is passive by nature, suited for only a narrow range of occupations, which are mostly domestic and service-oriented. How is this unconscious ideology conveyed? The scenes in the Protocol film provide a partial catalogue of the types of events that perpetuate this ideology—stereotypic storybook characters and language, differential encouragement in career choices, differential disciplining, differential expectations regarding assertiveness in social interactions, differential treatment in activities involv-

[2] Golden and Hunter, In All Fairness, pp. 56-58.

ing physical risks, high emphasis on physical appearance in girls, differential reinforcement of initiative in problem-solving tasks, perpetuation of the impression that boys can do things better, peer pressure to conform to stereotypic images, the exclusion of females from whole categories of activities.

According to Bem and Bem (1972), what the society, through socialization, really controls is the female's motivation.

> "It is frequently argued that a 21-year-old woman is perfectly free to choose a career if she cares to do so. No one is standing in her way. But this argument conveniently overlooks the fact that our society has spent 20 years carefully marking the woman's ballot for her, and so it has nothing to lose in that 21st year by pretending to let her cast it for the alternative of her choice. Society has controlled not her alternatives (although discrimination does do that), but more importantly, it has controlled her motivation to choose. . . . The so-called 'freedom-to-choose' is illusory, and it cannot be invoked to justify a society which controls the woman's motivation to choose."

Helson (1965) holds that the inhibition of assertiveness and initiative is a serious barrier to creativity in women. If this is so, and if the society does suppress or thwart the female's motivation to succeed, it would seem, then, that a powerful set of socialization factors act to keep women in a subordinate role.

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* Baumrind speaks of independence in the context of "instrumental competence." Instrumental competence is behavior that is both socially responsible and independent. According to Baumrind, women fulfill only part of the performance of instrumental competence in that they generally *are* socially responsible but *are not* independent.

Differences in Achievement [3]

There is a great deal of difference in the achievement of boys and girls, women and men, starting in the elementary years and continuing through college into professional life. Up until college, girls get better grades than boys, even in subjects where boys score higher on achievement tests (mathematics and science). School grade averages are significantly higher for girls than for boys in elementary school, but the difference narrows toward graduation from high school. Girls also appear to be more stable in their scholastic performance, while boys show more variability (Garai and Scheinfeld, 1968).

In college and professional life, however, men achieve substantially more than women in almost any indicator of intellectual activity (books and articles published, scientific, literary, and artistic achievements, etc.). Even women who are in the same relative position as men (e.g., Ph.D.'s in academic posts) are less productive in these respects (Maccoby, 1966). A followup of the gifted children in Terman's longitudinal study 25 years later showed that gifted men utilized their potential to a far greater degree than

[3] Golden and Hunter, In All Fairness, pp. 71-75.

did gifted women (Terman and Oden, 1947). Why is this? There exist theories and studies which attempt to answer the *why* of differential achievement.

Achievement Motives. Matina Horner (1969) tested her supposition that, because of social influences on children regarding sex-appropriate behavior, men possess a need to achieve and women possess an equally persuasive motive to avoid success. The need to achieve is an internal standard which motivates an individual to do well in any achievement-oriented situation. According to Horner, the motive to avoid success comes from a fear that success in competitive achievement will lead to negative consequences such as loss of popularity or femininity. Horner found that 65 per cent of the women she tested showed evidence of the motive to avoid success, while fewer than 10 per cent of the men tested showed it. Her findings suggest that most women will fully explore their intellectual potential only when they don't need to compete and that the fear of loss of femininity may lead to high anxiety in competitive situations.

Stein and Bailey (1973) have challenged this finding:

> "The literature at this date does not support that sex difference. Anxiety is usually correlated negatively with achievement for both sexes, although the data are not entirely in agreement. . . . [some] studies have found no correlation between anxiety and school achievement. (Crandall et al., 1962; Lekarczyk and Hill, 1969; Stanford, Dember, and Stanford, 1963)."

There is one important exception to these findings, if IQ is interpreted as achievement. In the Fels sample (Sontag and Baker, 1958), there is a positive relationship between increases in IQ and anxiety in girls from ages six to ten.

Personality Correlates of Intellectual Functioning. In a further attempt to understand intellectual differences between the sexes, we must consider the personality characteristics that seem to correlate with intellectual functioning.

Taylor (1964) reviewed the literature from 1933 to 1963 on personality attributes of achieving children, and compiled a list of the characteristics of overachievers. Overachieving children showed: well-controlled anxiety; high self-esteem; acceptance of authority; good relations with peers; independence (or little conflict regarding dependence); academically oriented (as opposed to socially oriented) interests; and realistic goals.

Another study examined the increase in IQ of nursery and elementary school children (Sontag, Baker, and Nelson, 1958). Children with the greatest increase in IQ were more independent of adults and more competitive with their peers. Girls with the greatest IQ increases were "less feminine" (showed less sex-typing of behaviors) and needed fewer immediate rewards than other girls. Independence seems to be a consistent characteristic of children who show increases in their IQ scores.

The personality characteristics associated with academic achievement change with age. Aggression and competition become more markedly linked with achievement in late elementary and junior high school years, and even more pronounced by high school (Crandall, 1967).

A number of the personality attributes listed here as being associated with achievement have been shown to be more characteristic of boys than girls. Moreover, they are traits that are supported in boys and discouraged in girls. For example, our society expects males to be independent, aggressive and competitive, to exhibit lack of fear and anxiety. Men are expected to model teamwork and camaraderie; women to compete against each other for men. The image of male success is oriented toward intellectual and vocational achievements. The successful female shows off her family and has attractive social skills. Women are not socialized to succeed intellectually or professionally.

Boys evaluate their own abilities and performance more realistically than girls (Crandall, et al., 1962; Sears, 1963). Crandall's work with first through third grade children showed that competent boys believed their own abilities enabled them to solve problem tasks, while less competent boys and all girls did not take credit for solving the problems, but felt that "fate" had solved them. Boys who evaluate their abilities realistically are more likely to hold realistic goals for themselves than boys and girls who are less in touch with their capabilities.

Reasons for Differential Achievement

a) *Values of the school.* Smith (1972) hypothesized that the reason achievement is higher for men than for women in college and careers is the school's reinforcement of "feminine," non-achievement-oriented qualities.

> "It is clear that boys and girls get differential treatment through the grades with the boys apparently getting the worst of it. But with all this, the girls as a group seem to suffer more than boys from their school experience. Not in grades, . . . but in something more subtle."

Girls come into nursery school physiologically more mature than boys, further along verbally. Boys at the same age are immature, and not reinforcing to a teacher who tries to maintain a relatively ordered and quiet classroom. The boys, more rambunctious and disruptive than the girls, receive the teacher's disapproval and criticism. Throughout the early school years this pattern is repeated: girls are rewarded for their compliance, dependency, control of impulsiveness and aggression; teachers see boys as having less favorable attitudes toward school than girls, and girls see that boys are admonished for behaviors of aggressiveness, independence, impulsiveness and autonomy—all of those traits which we have seen are related to achievement. So the girls generalize teacher approval to the habits of "niceness" and begin to view school as a vehicle for earning social approval.

b) *Teacher approval and disapproval.* Children's achievement in school is related to the amount as well as the type of approval or disapproval they receive from the teacher. In general, intellectual traits (problem-solving, creativity) are perceived as male, with boys being reinforced for those traits; non-intellectual traits (social interactions) are reinforced in girls as being appropriate female qualities. Minuchin (1964), comparing children in a traditional school and a more modern school, found that there were strong social demands for sex-typed behavior from children and that this played

a role in producing some of the differences that exist in intellectual functioning.

Boys receive more attention than girls, but a good deal of that attention is negative. Meyer and Thompson (1956) observed in three sixth grade classrooms for 30 hours in each, and noted that boys received significantly more blame contacts as well as more praise contacts than girls; teachers were therefore interacting more with boys. McNeil (1964), studying the relationship between teacher disapproval and reading difficulties, established that perceptions of first grade students were that boys were criticized more, and that girls read better. He determined that boys received more criticism for disruptive behavior.

Allen, Spear and Lucke (1971) showed that teacher criticism hurts school performance when they looked at reactions of children in primary and intermediate grades to approval, silence, and criticism. Primary boys were more adversely affected by criticism than any other group. Next came older girls, then young girls, with older boys least affected by criticism. Davidson and Long (1960) found that children who felt the teacher approved of them both performed and behaved better.

c) *Self-concept.* There seems to be a connection between a child's concept of self and achievement in school. Girls' self-concept appears to diminish around the same time as differentiated achievement in mathematics becomes evident—about age 13. Bachman (1970) reports that boys have more self-confidence than girls in relation to intellectual activities, and self-concept scores correlate with mathematical achievement in seventh graders. Fennema (1973b) finds that girls apparently feel inadequate when faced with mathematics, and probably avoid that subject whenever possible; their achievement therefore suffers because they don't practice the skills.

At the same time, in self-ratings on self-esteem tests males and females are similar up until college. At that time, when asked to predict how they'll do on a task or to describe their satisfaction in their performance, men, more than women, expect to do well and judge their performance favorably. Even though women's college grades are as good as men's, women predict they'll do less well in future tasks; men predict they'll do at least as well as before (Crandall, 1969).

Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) speculate that women express less self-confidence than men because of a hesitancy to brag, or because they don't define themselves in terms of success on tasks. Or they may feel less in control of their own fate (Crandall, 1962), and that "success is due to factors other than their own skills and hard work." Beginning in college, men have a greater sense of potency about new tasks than do women.

d) *Sex-role perception.* A child's concept of self in regard to performance of sex role traits may also be an important influence on achievement. The findings of a study by Stein and Smithells (1969) suggest that one major aspect of learning that occurs during a child's schooling may be the discerning of what is appropriate and inappropriate for one's own sex. If a child views an area of achievement (for example, reading or mathematics) as sex-appropriate for himself or herself, he or she may put more effort into becoming proficient in that area than into one that is considered inappropriate.

Mathematics and problem-solving are seen by society as masculine skills and therefore separate from the female role. Cleveland and Bosworth (1967) relate math achievement to sex role perception; their study established that girls who achieved well in arithmetic had lower scores on tests measuring a sense of personal worth than did girls who achieved poorly in arithmetic. According to Kagan (1964), girls scoring low on a scale of femininity performed better in math than those who exhibited "typical" feminine behavior. However, Lambert's (1960) study did not find this to be true.

In the area of reading, where girls consistently outperform boys, Dwyer (1973) found that reading is considered by both boys and girls to be a feminine activity. The perceptions of the male sex role may therefore actively interfere with boys' learning to read.

Social-Emotional Sex Differences[4]

The term "social-emotional" refers to traits of personality, social interactions, and expressiveness, as well as interests and play preferences of children. Social and emotional characteristics are discussed in this handbook with specific reference to similarities and differences between females and males. The information drawn upon comes mainly from results of interest inventories, personality tests, and adjective checklists.

As was the case with sex differences in intellectual and physical abilities, there are two basic "explanations" for social and emotional differences: heredity and environment and/or socialization. Evidence seems quite conclusive that the hormonal differences between the sexes may precipitate differences in aggression (Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974). All other personality traits and interests seem to be changeable in accordance with what society dictates at any given time.

[4] Golden and Hunter, In All Fairness, pp. 78-79.

Sex Differences in Mental Health

It has been a general observation that among preschool and elementary school children girls report more fears and manifest more "nervous habits" (e.g., nail biting and thumb sucking) than boys. On the other hand, "behavior problems" (hyperactivity, temper tantrums) seem to be more common among boys (Anastasi, 1958). This provides some evidence for the conclusion that there is no sex difference in emotional stability, but there are clear differences in the way it is manifested. During adolescence, however, when measured on inventories of neurotic symptoms, women exhibit a greater number of neurotic symptoms than men. In fact, on one index, from ages 14 to 18 the median number of neurotic symptoms declines steadily for boys, while the number rises steadily for girls. In adult groups, sex differences in this area are upheld. One early study (reported in Anastasi, 1958) found that women subjects had a significantly higher number of neurotic symptoms; men studied were significantly more self-confident and self-sufficient. More recent personality inventories have supported these findings.

Broverman et al.'s (1970) survey of 46 male and 33 female clinicians indicates that healthy women were assumed to differ from healthy men "by being submissive, less independent, less adventurous, less competent, more excitable in minor crises, more easily hurt, more emotional, more conceited about appearance, less objective, less intelligent in mathematics and science." There seems from this survey to be a double standard for mental health.

> "In our society, men and women are systematically trained, practically from birth on, to fulfill different social roles. An adjustment notion of health, plus the existence of differential norms of male and female behavior in our society automatically lead to a double standard of health. Thus, for a woman to be healthy, from an adjustment viewpoint, she must adjust to and accept the behavioral norms for her sex, *even though these behaviors are generally less socially desirable and considered to be less healthy for the generalized competent, mature adult.* [italics ours]

> "By way of analogy, one could argue that a black person who conformed to the 'pre-civil rights' southern Negro stereotype, that is, a docile, unambitious, childlike, etc., person, was well adjusted to his environment and, therefore, a healthy and mature adult. Our recent-history testifies to the bankruptcy of this concept." (Broverman et al., 1970)

Both Bem (1972) and Chesler (1972) observed that psychologists use stereotypes of "appropriate" masculine and feminine behavior to make professional judgments; women are classified as healthy, neurotic, or psychotic according to a male ethic of mental health (for example, in at least one study the "normal" woman is the unemployed housewife).

> "Women who fully act out the conditioned female role" (non-aggression, timidity, passivity, submissiveness) "are clinically viewed as 'neurotic' or 'psychotic'. . . . Women who reject or are ambivalent about the feminine role frighten both themselves and society so much that their ostracism and self-destructiveness probably begin very early." (Chesler, 1972)

Several recent studies investigating how men and women value themselves and each other show a devaluation of women. Both men and women rated qualities associated with the ideal male higher than those associated with the ideal female (Rosenkrantz, et al., 1968); they devalued work done by women over the same work when it was labelled as normally done by men (Mischel, 1973); and they depicted painful and embarrassing things happening to successful women, good things happening to successful men (Monahan, et al., 1973).

Women's devaluation of themselves seems to be accompanied by anger and depression over the pressures to accept inferior status. Men are also under pressure to maintain their masculine qualities. Harford, et al. (1967) correlated high masculinity with anxiety, guilt-proneness, tough poise, neuroticism and suspectingness. Low masculinity correlated with warmth, brightness, emotional stability, sensitivity, bohemianism, and sophistication, leading one to believe that being highly masculine might not be such a boon after all.

Two experiments by Bem (1975) began by rating college men and women on a scale of androgeny to determine if androgynous individuals would be more likely than masculine or feminine individuals to behave without regard to whether a behavior was sex-appropriate. An androgynous sex role represents "the equal endorsement of both masculine and feminine attributes." Bem found that androgynous subjects of both sexes displayed "masculine" independence when pressured to conform, and "feminine" playfulness when given the opportunity to interact with a kitten. All of the non-androgynous subjects displayed behavioral deficits. The feminine females showed perhaps the greatest deficit of all. They failed to display independence under pressure to conform, and playfulness in interaction with a kitten. Bem notes that this is not inconsistent with findings that "femininity in females is generally associated with high anxiety and poor social adjustment."

The anxiety of both men and women over role identification points to a need to examine personality characteristics and interests to see what differences exist between the two sexes. The following sections examine personality differences as reported in personality inventories and basic research.

Passivity.[5] Just as males are assumed to be the aggressive sex, females are described as passive. A passive-dependent person is more oriented toward social stimuli; more in need of affection, attention, or approval from others; prefers to remain near others and resists being alone; and responds to danger or difficulty by seeking protection or help (as opposed to counter-attacking, investigating the danger, or coping directly with the problem). These characteristics are consistently assigned to girls and women by the society.

The generalization that girls are initially more passive and dependent than boys cannot be accepted in early childhood, since studies of attachment conclude that dependency and attachment behavior are characteristic of all human children with little or no differentiation by sex from infancy through preschool (Maccoby and Jacklin, 1972). In early childhood, the sexes are similar in their willingness to explore a new environment; both sexes are highly responsive to social situations of all kinds. Girls are more willing to carry out demands of adults, but this compliance can be active as well as passive (e.g., running errands, performing services). There is no difference between boys and girls in yielding or withdrawing from aggression (Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974).

[5] Golden and Hunter, In All Fairness, p. 82.

CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES: A BOOKLET FOR PARTICIPANTS
TO USE WITH THEIR STUDENTS

COURSE DEVELOPMENT TEAM

Wendy Leebov Gollub
Allie Mooney Mulvihill
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Earline Sloan

ADMINISTRATIVE TEAM

Debra Klinman, Project Director
Carol Farley Kessler, Administrative Coordinator
Wendy Leebov Gollub, Course Development Coordinator
Julie Moser, Project Secretary

SUGGESTED ASSIGNMENT:

Complete at least two self-study activities in Section I.
Complete at least one classroom activity in Section II.

SECTION I: SELF-STUDY ACTIVITIES FOR DEVELOPING THE MIND SET THAT INDEPENDENCE IS VALUABLE AND NECESSARY

Classroom Activity #1: Do this every school day for one week.

*Read this at the start of the day: "Many times during each school day, I will say to myself that independence is healthy."
*At the end of each school day, finish the following sentence as many times as possible:

I considered it a sign of independence when (enter the name of a student and the behavior that s/he exhibited) _____

_____.

Classroom Activity #2: Do this every school day for one week.

*First, select one aspect of independence (intellectual, emotional and behavioral, or daily living skills) which you would like to encourage among your students.
*Read this at the start of the day: "Many times during each school day, I will say to myself that intellectual/emotional and behavioral/daily living skills independence is healthy."
*At the end of each school day, finish the following sentences as many times as possible:

I considered it a sign of (intellectual/emotional and behavioral/daily living skills independence) when (enter the name of a student and the behavior s/he exhibited) _____

_____.

Classroom Activity #3:

*On Monday, list the names of five students who seldom show signs of independence.
*During each school day for one week, pay special attention to any sign(s) of independence exhibited by these five students. Be sure to reinforce them!
*On Friday, describe some example of independent behavior you noticed in each student and the way in which you reinforced what you noticed.

	Student's Name	Independent Behavior	Reinforcement
1.			
2.			
3.			
4.			
5.			

Classroom Activity #4:

*First, select one aspect of independence (intellectual, emotional and behavioral, or daily living skills) you would like to encourage among your students.
*On Monday, list the names of students who seldom show this particular aspect of independence.
*During each school day for one week, pay special attention to any sign(s) of this aspect of independence that these students exhibit. Be sure to reinforce them!
*On Friday, describe a situation when each of the students exhibited the aspect of independence you're working on, and describe how you reinforced it.

The aspect of independence I selected is _____.

Student's Name	Independent Behavior	Reinforcement
1. _____	_____	_____
2. _____	_____	_____
3. _____	_____	_____
4. _____	_____	_____
5. _____	_____	_____

SECTION II: A REPERTOIRE OF CURRICULAR INTERVENTIONS THAT ENCOURAGE STUDENT INDEPENDENCE

Classroom Activity #1: Encouraging intellectual independence.

Research indicates that many teachers tend to ask their male students thought-provoking questions, while they ask their female students product-oriented questions (e.g., questions with a "right" or "wrong"/"yes" or "no" answer). By asking all of your students thought-provoking questions, you can convey the expectation of intellectual independence. Your questions will let all of your students know that you expect them to think and reason for themselves.

During the upcoming week, ask a great number of thought-provoking questions. Frequently, direct these questions to females. Be sure to wait for their answers (count silently to ten, if necessary). If they answer incompletely wait a while longer, or say something like, "Tell me more." This will show them that you expect them to be able to think things through and that you value their ideas.

On Friday, write your answers to the following questions:

*How did the girls in your class respond to this treatment by you? How did the boys in your class respond?
*How has the week's assignment altered your own expectations? Explain your answer.

Hint: You may want to continue this activity over a longer period of time so that your students can adjust to your new behaviors.

Classroom Activity #2: Encouraging emotional independence through group activities

Frequently, teachers are the center of the classroom. Students receive criticism, praise, and feedback directly from the teacher. On the next nine pages, you will find several activities that encourage group interaction and emotional independence from the teacher.

While these activities are geared to students in grades four through nine, with some adaptation they can be used at other grade levels.

Essentially, students use each other as resources and complete a group task. Following the task, they give each other feedback. If such activities are done consistently, students will depend less on the teacher, and more on one another, for emotional support.

Teachers who use grouping to encourage independence need to ponder the question: "In which group should I place each student, so that her/his ability to think and express feelings will be enhanced rather than suppressed?" After all, moving a student away from emotional dependence on you, just to have her/him continue dependency behaviors in a small group situation, will NOT be beneficial. Think clearly about your grouping arrangements, even if it means that some groups have members of only one sex. Write up your results for each of the activities you try.

The following nine pages (28-36) are reprinted with permission from S. Shulkin, K. Doughty, and S. Smith, The Together Book (Philadelphia: School District of Philadelphia, 1974), no page numbers.

CARD CITY

In your new group
Your task is to:

BUILD a STRUCTURE OUT OF INDEX CARDS and PAPER CLIPS

BUILD IT as TALL as YOU can.
BUT REMEMBER: IT HAS TO STAND UP BY ITSELF.

(YOUR TEACHER WILL GIVE YOU a TIME LIMIT)

FEEDBACK

STOP!

and TAKE a LOOK at WHAT HAPPENED in YOUR GROUP.
FILL IN THE REST OF THE PAGE BY YOURSELF.

1. DID YOUR GROUP GET THE STRUCTURE made ? yes ☐ no ☐
2. DID EVERYONE HAVE A CHANCE TO WORK ON IT ? yes ☐ no ☐
3. DID YOU DO as MUCH as YOU WANTED TO ? yes ☐ no ☐

Shulkin, Doughty, Smith, The Together Book (1974)

OBSERVING: WHILE YOU WORK

While You Work On The Group Shield Watch The Other People In Your Group So That You Can Give Them Feedback About What They Do.

ON THE GROUP SHIELD

① Your teacher will give your group a piece of paper. Draw a big shield on it the shape of this little one. → Cut it out and mark the five sections.

② In each section put a picture that can stand for your group: in 1., your favorite car, in 2., your movie star, in 3 your animal, in 4, your group dessert and in 5., your lucky number.

③ Try to agree on one thing for each section. If your group can't agree, put a couple of pictures.

④ Don't use words! Use pictures. Draw them. Cut them from magazines, or both.

⑤ When you're done, tell the class about your shield, and put it up in the room. Then do the rest of this page. ↓

FEEDBACK TO YOUR GROUP

Write A Message To Each Person In Your Group About Some Of The Things You Saw Them Do While They Were Working On The Shield.

_____, I Saw You _____
name

_____

_____ I Saw You _____
name

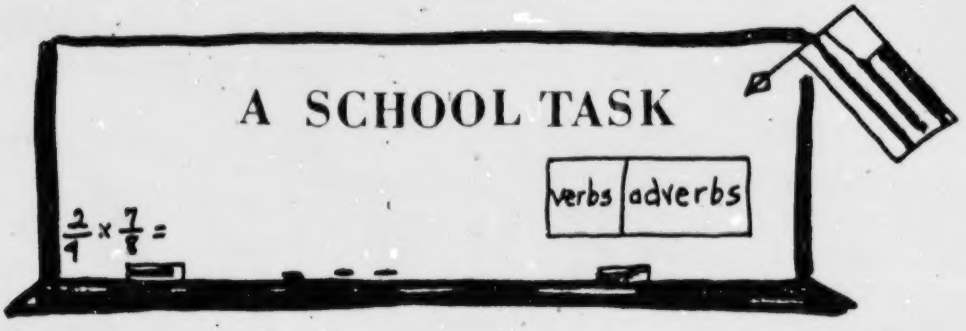
_____

_____ I Saw You _____
name

_____

Now Read The Messages To Each Other.

Shulkin, Doughty, Smith, The Together Book (1974).



YOUR TEACHER IS GOING TO GIVE YOU A SCHOOL WORK TASK TO DO. DO IT AS A GROUP.

USUALLY PEOPLE GET GRADED FOR THEIR OWN WORK. BUT THIS BOOK IS TRYING TO GET YOU TO WORK IN GROUPS.

SO... YOU WILL BE GRADED AS A GROUP. THAT WAY, IF YOU ARE GOOD AT HELPING EACH OTHER, YOU'LL ALL COME OUT AHEAD. YOUR TEACHER WILL EXPLAIN HOW IT WILL WORK.

WHEN YOU'RE FINISHED, come BACK TO THIS PAGE FOR courageous FEELING MESSAGES.

Courageous feeling message feedback: Write some and say some.

Take Heart

_____, WHEN YOU

_____

_____

I FELT_____.

_____, WHEN YOU _____

_____

I FELT_____.

Shulkin, Doughty, Smith, The Together Book (1974).

Use this page to make a list of things you and your teacher agree would be good for your groups to do.

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____

As a group, choose some to work on.
Give each other courageous feeling messages as you finish each one.

Shulkin, Doughty, Smith, The Together Book (1977).

Friendly attention

Everybody can use some FRIENDLY ATTENTION...
But it takes practice to give it.
Here are some ways to do it:

LOOK AT THE PERSON.

LISTEN CAREFULLY TO THE PERSON.

TELL THE PERSON WHEN HE/SHE SAYS SOMETHING HELPFUL.

ASK THE PERSON FOR ADVICE.

IF THE PERSON IS OUT OF THINGS, TRY TO GET HIM/HER INVOLVED.

TELL THE PERSON WHEN HE/SHE DOES SOMETHING WELL.

ASK THE PERSON QUESTIONS.

NOW YOU'LL ALL HAVE A CHANCE TO GET SOME "FRIENDLY ATTENTION" AND TO PRACTICE GIVING IT.

There are 4 tasks on the next 2 pages. Each person in the group, put your name by a different task. Begin doing task 1.

If your name is beside the task, you wear the friendly attention button while you do the task.

Other group members, give that person lots of FRIENDLY ATTENTION. Look at the list at the top of the page to make sure you know how to do it.

Shulkin, Doughty, Smith, The Together Book (1974).

FRIENDLY ATTENTION TASKS

TASK 1

UGLY WORLD

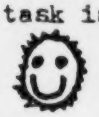
As a group, talk about what a really ugly world would look like.

On a big sheet of paper, draw a group picture of it.

Now make up a story telling how it got so ugly.

Tell the story to your class and show them the picture.

The person who will receive FRIENDLY ATTENTION during this task is



_____
(name)

TASK 2

BEAUTIFUL WORLD

As a group talk about what a really beautiful world would look like.

Get another big sheet of paper and draw a picture of it.

Make up a story explaining how the ugly world turned into the beautiful world.

Tell the story and show your picture to your class.

The person who will receive FRIENDLY ATTENTION during this task is _____
(name)

TASK 3 GROUP NEWS

Each person in the group take a page from a newspaper. Cut out 3 separate words from a caption.

Your task as a group is to arrange these 12 words so that they make a sentence or two about your group. You can write in a few connecting words if you need to, but you must use all 12 words.

The person who will receive FRIENDLY ATTENTION during this task is...

_____.
(name)

35

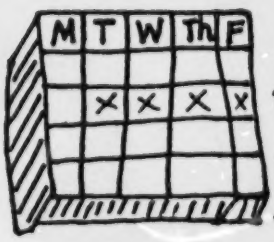
Shulkin, Doughty, Smith, The Together Book (1974).

PROBLEMS are LIKE

*horns ... they can get you stuck.

Think about a problem you may be having now that is making you feel stuck. Here's a way to get some help with it.

Tell your group about it.
Answer any of their questions.
When they understand the problem, get them to come up with suggestions.
Pick one of the suggestions.
Give it a try.
Let them know what happens after you try it.



you may want to take a few days on this page so everyone will have a chance to talk about a problem.

Shulkin, Doughty, Smith, The Together Book (1974).

A Letter to Ned Newperson

A Letter came to your group today. It said →

Dear Group,

In my classroom, we just started working in groups and we're having some problems. We hear you've really got it together. Could you give us some advice?

Ned Newperson
Class Secretary

Your task today is to answer this letter.

* Make it a group letter so Ned and his class won't be confused with four different answers.

Dear Ned,

A good group member is usually a person who _____.

_____.

If someone in your group starts acting bossy, you might try _____.

_____.

If the other group members are helping each other but are ignoring you, you might try _____.

In general, the best advice we can give any group is _____.

_____.

Good luck. Signed, _____
(our group name)

Shulkin, Doughty, Smith, The Together Book (1974).

GROUP PROBLEMS

1. **BRAINSTORM:** WITH YOUR WHOLE CLASS: THINK UP A LIST OF ALL THE PROBLEMS THAT CAN GET A GROUP STUCK.

2. BY YOURSELF: WRITE DOWN ALL THE PROBLEMS YOU THINK YOUR GROUP HAS MOST.

3. WITH YOUR GROUP: TRY TO DECIDE WHAT THE MAIN PROBLEMS ARE IN YOUR GROUP. DECIDE ON ONE PROBLEM TO WORK ON. PICK ONE THAT EVERYONE IN YOUR GROUP AGREES TO TRY TO SOLVE. WRITE THE PROBLEM IN THE CONTRACT BOX AND PASS YOUR BOOK AROUND FOR ALL YOUR GROUP MEMBERS TO SIGN.

We, The Undersigned, Hereby Agree To Work On The Following Problem In Our Group.

The Problem Is _____

_____

1. _____ name 2. _____ name

3. _____ name 4. _____ name

One Way We Plan To Avoid Having This Problem Is _____

_____

_____

If This Problem Does Arise, We Plan To

_____

_____

_____

_____

Shulkin, Doughty, Smith, The Together Book (1974).

Classroom Activity #3: Encouraging emotional independence.

Some compliant girls might need your explicit encouragement before they can begin to exhibit independent behaviors. One thing you can do is reinforce every sign of independence you notice. Another thing you can do is run sharing circles that focus on independence. This will give you a chance to show your excitement about their new behaviors. You can hold sharing circles with the whole class or with a small group of students whom you feel need special encouragement.

Some examples of independence sharing circles sentence starters are:

"Times I was independent today were _____."
"A time I wished I had been independent was _____."
"A time I did something independently, and it felt good was _____."
"A time I did something independently, and it felt bad was _____."
"I like to be in charge when _____."
"Something I need before I can feel independent is _____."
"One time when I used my good reasoning was _____."
"Something hard that I can do without any help is _____."

Record the feelings, thoughts, and learnings that come out of such sharing circles.

Classroom Activity #4: Encouraging any aspect of independence that you choose.

*What aspect of intellectual, emotional and behavioral, or daily living skills independence did you choose to focus on? (Initiative? Creativity? Willingness to think for oneself? Willingness to take risks? etc.) Write your choice here: _____
_____
_____

*Which teacher behaviors convey your expectation for this aspect of independence? _____
_____
_____

*As part of Module #5, your colleagues helped you brainstorm ideas about interventions for increasing the aspect of independence you're working on. Write their suggestions here: _____
_____
_____

*Circle the suggestion(s) you have decided to implement in your classroom. Describe what you did and what happened. Any learnings? Surprises? Other kinds of things that occurred for you? For your students? _____
_____
_____

Classroom Activity #5: Encouraging student initiative.

Note: If you've chosen another aspect of independence to focus on, try using this activity and replacing "initiative" with your area of interest. See if you come up with any new ideas.

a. Day One: Divide your students into two groups (NOT by sex). One group is given a symbol "O" to wear on their collars; the other group wears the symbol "X." Try to be sure that close friends wear different symbols. During all of Day One, X's cannot take the initiative when they interact with O's (e.g., X's cannot speak first, or tell an O they'd like to work with them, or go to lunch with them, etc.). On the other hand, O's should take initiative as often as possible.
b. Day Two: The students in the "X" group switch roles with those in the "O" group.
c. Day Three: All members of the class discuss their reactions to the experience:
   1) How did it feel to take the initiative?
   2) How did it feel to be prevented from taking the initiative?
   3) Which was easier?
d. Follow-up activities for your students:
   1) Guided writing
      a) Think of some situations in which you wish you had taken more initiative. List them.
      b) Look over your list and choose one situation to work on.
      c) What made it hard for you to take initiative in that situation? (Think of external obstacles and internal obstacles.)
      d) What could you say to yourself that would have made it easier to take initiative in that situation? How could other people help you?
   2) Oral assignment
      Students form groups of five. They share their writing to the extent that they are willing. Group members help each other think of additional supportive self-statements if they seem needed. Group members also help generate self-statements to use if taking the initiative fails to produce the desired results. Each person commits her/himself to working on her/his personal goals in some specific way during the next couple of days (before the group meets again.)
      The group continues then to meet periodically to check on progress, help solve problems, and generate new goals.
   3) Daily logging or sharing circles
      At the end of each day, have your students spend 5-10 minutes completing these sentence starters in a personal log or else hold sharing circles with these sentence starters:
      a) Times I took initiative today _____.
      b) Times I wished I had taken initiative _____.
      c) Times I waited and was glad _____.
      d) Times I waited and was sorry _____.
e. Did you come up with ideas about the specific aspect of independence you want to foster? Some ideas:

If you wanted to encourage your students to think for themselves, you would only have to change the game slightly and then change the

process questions. (E.g., you would have a group of X's who are told not to think for themselves and a group of O's who are told to think for themselves as much as possible. Then, if an X wanted to know what to do in the playground, or what to order for lunch, it would be necessary to ask an O, etc.)

Or, if you wanted to foster creativity, you might structure an art activity where the O students were allowed free choice of all the art media in the room as well as the freedom to express themselves anyway they chose, while the X's could only copy whatever an O did first.

Or, if you wanted to encourage creative thinking, you might give the O's a task that would stretch their imaginations, such as:

> "Imagine that a truck driver arrives at your front door with 1,000 hub caps. You cannot return them. They are yours. Your task is to figure out all the crazy, off the wall ways to use those hub caps (e.g., ashtrays for steady smokers, frisbees for bionic persons, etc.)."

Meanwhile, the X's would be given a straightforward, product-oriented task, such as:

> "Make a list of all the Presidents of the United States."

Again, you would have students switch roles after one day and then discuss what had happened:

*How did you feel when it was your turn to think creatively?
*How did you feel when you were not permitted to think creatively?
*Which task was easier? More enjoyable?

Now, how can you adapt this strategy to work on the particular aspect of independence you'd like to foster among your students?

Record your ideas here:

Implement your plans in your classroom. Keep a record of your thoughts, learnings, surprises, outcomes, and whatever else you'd like to share.